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ABSTRACT

The document presents 10 papers which offer a framework for improving educational field experience in master's level social welfare management programs. The guide is arranged in three parts. The two papers in part I, the orienting framework, present a set of value assumptions which govern the nature and effectiveness of social service delivery and sketch a set of theoretical models pertaining to social welfare administration. The five papers in part II, implementing structures, describe partnerships, settings, models, and evaluation as means by which the values and knowledge described in part I are implemented. Topics discussed include school agency partnership in developing effective learning situations, the relationship between class and field experience, learning settings, analysis of models of field experience currently used in social work schools, and evaluation of practice settings, field instructors, learning opportunities, and student progress. The two papers in part III, discussion of knowledge, skills, and values, present a model of the essential curricular components of a field experience program, a conceptual framework to guide curriculum design in the future, and a chart portraying managerial functions, knowledge required, performance objectives, practice assignments, and classroom content of a social welfare curriculum. The last paper in the document is an annotated bibliography. (Author/DB)

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THE FIELD EXPERIENCE

IN

EDUCATION FOR MANAGEMENT

IN

SOCIAL WELFARE

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FORWARD

The development of this report fulfills a major objective of the National Project on Education for Management of Social Welfare. It expands upon and extends work initially described by Dr. Sue Henry in an article titled "Guidelines for the Field Experience in Education for Management in Social Welfare."

The Project, which began in 1974, has been conducted by the School of Social Work and the Wharton School at the University of Pennsylvania. It is supported by the Social and Rehabilitation Services, Community Services Administration, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Project Grant No. 47-P90040/3-02.

The papers here do not attempt to offer exact solutions or to set forth criteria to be followed in every organization. Instead, they are intended to provide the broad framework upon which specific solutions determined by local educational circumstances and resources can be based. While the material here describes practical procedures, it is anticipated that the reader's imagination will be stimulated to devise even better methods.

This document, it is hoped, will prove useful to all who are concerned with improving the field experience in education for management in social welfare.

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INTRODUCTION

The work undertaken by the consultant Task Force and reported here came from a proposal of the National Project on Education for Management in Social Welfare to "further test, evaluate, and revise the criteria for selecting and organizing field placements and/or learning experiences for Master of Social Work students in managerial positions, roles, and settings in social welfare organizations."

This assignment was further delineated to include the development of a Guide to contain:

The identification of knowledge, value, and skill areas in administration to be taught and learned via field practice placements.

The criteria and principles for selection of field practice assignments and field agencies.

Principles governing relationships between school and agencies and their mutual responsibilities.

Guides for linking learning from classroom and field practice and clarification of what content is appropriately taught in which setting.

Some possible patterns of field placements which could offer the learning opportunities deemed important.

Criteria for evaluation of field agencies, field practice assignments, student progress, and school-agency relations.

A bibliography regarding the field experience for education in management as reported in social welfare literature.

PART I. ORIENTING FRAMEWORK

Administrative practice, for the purpose of these guidelines, is defined as those behaviors concerned with planning, mobilizing, directing, and evaluating the services and resources of social agencies directly and, on behalf of the agency, elsewhere in the community. These behaviors apply equally as well to efforts which change the nature and effectiveness of social service delivery as to those which maintain and enhance social welfare service delivery. To the extent that these behaviors define administrative practice, they are understood as defining the behaviors to be taught and learned in the field experience in education for administrative and managerial roles. The domain of this practice and education for the practice is bound by value, knowledge, and behavioral parameters.

This paper presents a set of value assumptions. James Hackshaw sketches a set of theoretical models pertaining to social welfare administration. Any one of these models or some combination of them might be used in administrative practice by an agency administrator, social work field instructor, or classroom teacher. Hackshaw stresses the need for making the philosophical or theoretical orientation to management practice explicit so that learning is facilitated and not confounded to the extent that articulation can be found between classroom, field, and student.

VALUES

by Sue Henry

Any discussion of values and value assumptions in administrative practice and education must be understood from the perspective that every decision is value laden and determined. There are no exhaustive or universally accepted value statements either in social work or in social welfare administration. Values need to be made explicit in practice and in education. In this discussion, certain value assumptions are identified. They are guides to administrative behavior, indicative of an orientation which surrounds and undergirds ethical administrative behavior.

The temptation to contrast a management orientation and a social welfare orientation on various value dimensions has been resisted. The differences in operation of values in managerial practice may be more a function of who the manager is than of the field from which she or he comes. Thus, values may be stated as continua or dimensions, and any given manager will stand at some point along that dimension. Nonetheless, the following value statements may be taken as those which set one boundary for administrative practice. They are arranged from general to specific in terms of reference to administrative practice in social welfare. Following that, a set of value dilemmas with which any manager struggles is identifield. Again, resolution of the dilemma will not follow reasoning which can be set forth as deriving from one field of study but is more likely to proceed from the manager's stance with respect to other value items.

VALUE ASSUMPTIONS

1) Administration is essentially an orderly process, depending on its effective performance on goal definition, clarity in its policies, specificity in the roles of all who are a part of the organizational system, equity in its discharge of functions, and planned coordination of its parts.

2) A social agency is composed of individuals who enact the behaviors of system-specific roles. It is also more than the sum of its interacting parts in the sense that the charter, auspice, policies, and roles exist without regard to the persons who occupy the roles and statuses of the organization.

3) To the extent that a social agency is an open system, it is in a state of change and is amenable to planned influence.

4) Organization stability occurs by means of the orderly and progressive achievement of accommodation between maintenance of and modification of the organization.

5) An assumption that competence resides in persons occupying position in the organizational structure undergirds use of human resources.

6) Skills in analysis and in interpersonal relations are required for managerial effectiveness of social welfare organization albeit they are differentially possessed by managers and differentiallv used according to organizational levels occupied by managers and demands of management tasks.

7) The administrative style of the executive will influence the degree of innovation which is permitted throughout the organization.

8) Managers should be able to provide flexible leadership to enable fulfillment of organizational objectives.

9) The administrator retains central identity with a professional social work stance.

10) Ethical guides to conduct found in the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) Code of Ethics and the value system of the social work profession apply equally to social workers who administer and to those in other levels and modes of practice.

11) Accountability for professional managerial or administrative practice is to clients, funding source, the profession, society via community auspice, and governing body just as sanction is derived from clients and society in any other practice mode or institutional arrangement.

VALUE DILEMMAS

Recognition of these value assumptions as undergirding managerial or administrative practice and recognizing that practice with reference to them dictates a certain orientation in no way mitigates against confronting value dilemmas. In identifying some of those dilemmas, it should be borne in mind, that administration is a method, a process, and a set of relationships. The relationships, it may be contended, constitute both the raw materials and the product as societal mandates are translated into services and programs. Against that backdrop, these value dilemmas, and others not identified, emerge to command the attention of social welfare administrators and managers:

Competition ..... Cooperation

Ends ..... Means

Process ..... Product

Self-determination ..... Professional responsibility

A FRAME OF REFERENCE FOR FIELD TEACHING IN MANAGEMENT

James O. F. Hackshaw
with
Marlene Patterson

Against the backdrop of scarce resources and compelling needs, social welfare organizations are facing increasing pressure for greater effectiveness and efficiency in social service delivery. This crisis in accountability demands that management practice skill being taught in field settings be made operational and subject to testing. Undergirding this approach for specification of performance criteria is the concern of legislative funding bodies for goal-oriented social services. Students must know not only what is, but also what should be so that their problem solving practice skills are clearly directed to narrowing the gap between these two points.

Both the school and the field teaching agency require a conceptual framework to structure the selection of the content for teaching in the field. Lack of such a framework will result in proliferation of skills to be taught without the student having a firm grasp of skills for what.

THEORETICAL MODELS

There is no single, universally accepted theory about organizations. Instead, several theories and several major ideas have influenced thinking about organizations. Theories about organization and systems of administration are important, because managerial behavior in organizations reflect, explicitly or implicitly, theory about what an organization is--interpersonal relations, organization design, power distribution, and human rights.

Thus, ways of looking at "organizations as administrative processes illuminate the task of administration irrespective of the type of organization in which it is being practiced."

In this manual, four models have been chosen for purposes of illustration--scientific management, bureaucracy, human relations, and the systems approach. The distinctions are not as compartmentalized as the brief overview might suggest. Each is really a perspective rather than a separate school of thought, distinguishing features are emphasized to highlight the perspectives and possible practice consequences of each.

For the beginning student, an important guide is to learn the orientation of the field. Orientations management change from time to time. At any particular point, however, knowing the orientation will help to recognize what issues are important, what organizational methods are used, and how client and staff participation in decision making is perceived. As Warham points out:

> Theory is relevant to practice if it contributes to the more accurate diagnosis of the situation under eview, helps to increase the range of alternatives from which a choice of action can be made, gives a wider perspective on the implication of particular lines of action, and provides a frame of reference within which diverse activities can be coordinated and a sense of direction be developed. (Warham 1967)

SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT

Scientific management, as represented by Frederick Taylor (1856-1915) and others, was concerned with a rational and analytical approach to the study of administration and its improvement. Taylor was the first to seriously undertake the study of work.[1] In doing so he realized that the initial step in thestudy of work, whether physical or mental, was analysis.

Drawing upon his background as an engineer, he provided an empirical and mechanistic focus to management. He states his doctrine of scientific management in terms of manual labor and production work.

According to the view of scientific management school, the administrative tasks are planning relationships among work, people, and work place. It is management's responsibility to think through a task, analyze it into its component parts, and structure it for the worker so he is not called upon for independent judgments. In Taylor's opinion, this approach offers a real advantage to the workman as well as to the manager.

> The first great advantage which scientific management has over the management of initiative and incentive is that under scientific management the initiative of the workmen--that is, their hard work, their good will, their ingenuity--is obtained practically with absolute regularity, while under even the best of the older type of management this initiative is only obtained spasmodically and somewhat irregularly.[2]

It has been said that the assumptions underlying Taylor's position were derived from an essentially negative view about workers' behavior in an organization and from a basically authoritarian attitude toward the use of power. Emphasis is placed on establishing organizational relationships founded on concepts of authority and responsibility arranged in a hierarchy. The ends are frequently taken as given and means are to be engineered to produce desired outcomes with maximum efficiency. (Gordon, 1963) Key words in this school are control, order, efficiency, and precision. The tendency is to ignore motivations and attitudes of employees. Some commentators have referred to this approach as organizations without people.

Other interpretors saw a concern for the worker's motivation, but this was restricted to the assumption that the workman was motivated by

economic reward.[3] Taylor did express some concern for people in the organization as evidenced by the following:

> It becomes the duty on the management's side to deliberately study the character, the nature, and the performance of each workman with a view to finding out his limitations...his possibilities for development; and then...to train and help and teach this workman, giving him, wherever possible, those opportunities for advancement which will enable him to do the highest, most interesting and most profitable class of work...[4]

Obviously, scientific management has affinities with the formal structure of large organizations. Once its premises are accepted, its logic could appeal to the orderly minded. (Warham, 1967)

BUREAUCRACY

Max Weber (1864-1920) formulated the basic concepts identified with bureaucratic organizations and administration. He attempted to develop a normative rational management structure to deal with administering large organizations. He characterized management as a rationalized complex administrative hierarchy with a clearly defined hierarchy of offices, each with a clearly defined area of jurisdiction, each filled by a person tested to have the highest technical qualifications, and the entire set of offices linked together by a system of rules, procedures, and impersonal interpersonal relationships.

Essentially, the emphasis is that organizational activities can best be planned, organized, directed, and controlled by written policies, procedures, rules, and regulations. Methods and techniques are systematized so that guidelines for achieving results through management and staff involvement are definite and known to all.

Large organizations need some way of ensuring that day-to-day work will be performed. However, a too rigid adherence to this model may result in means, procedures, methods, and technology becoming more important than the end of service provision. While rules and regulations may promote a desirable impartiality to treatment, they may also create a rigidity that makes adaptations to change difficult. As regulations abound, the informal system becomes a network of well-developed communication channels that enable staff to circumvent the formalized channels.

While the list of conflicts could be extended, the student, using Weber's model as a backdrop, can begin to measure his agency's characteristics to identify those elements which contribute to or detract from its effectiveness. This can provide a basis for planned corrective action.

HUMAN RELATIONS

The human relations movement is a school of management thought of current significance which developed in part as a reaction to the formal approach of the scientific management and bureaucratic schools. Elton Mayo is generally recognized as father of the school. The experimental work which provided the foundation for this approach started with studies by Roethlisberger and Dickson, carried out from 1927 to 1932 at the Western Electric Company Howthorne Plant. Important conclusions drawn from these studies are:

1. The level of production is set by social norms, not by psychological capacities.
2. Non-economic rewards and sanctions significantly affect the behavior of workers.

A major assumption of this school was that a primary motivating force is man's need to be accepted and to belong to groups. Great attention was given to individual and group relationships in organizations. Management's

task was to elicit willing cooperation. Essentially, this approach highlighted the shift in emphasis from the traditional school with its focus on formal hierarchy and control, to the organization as a dynamic situation involving the interactions of people.

Another major assumption of the human relations school may be questioned. This was that no ineradicable conflict existed between the individual's and the organization's needs and that the satisfaction of one was reconcilable with the efficiency of the other. The scientific management approach also assumed that human happiness and rational, productive management were compatible.[5] In attempting to explore ways of minimizing conflict, neither approach acknowledged that situations may occur in which interests of participating groups may be irreconcilable and, therefore, conflict inevitable.

McGregor (1960) presented a view of men and women in organizations that is associated with the human relations tradition. Discussing the human side of enterprise, he posits a number of generalizations which for a modest beginning for a new theory of management of human resources he referred to as Theory Y.

1. "The expenditures of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as rest or play.

2. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.

3. Committment to objectives if a function of the rewards is associated with their achievement. (Self-actualization is a significant reward.)

4. The average human being learns under proper conditions not only to accept but to seek responsibility."[6]

The principle of integration is a central tenet of Theory Y. Integration refers to..."the creation of conditions such that members of the organization

can achieve their own goals best by directing their efforts toward the success of the enterprise."[6]

Experimental studies on the human relations approach verified the existence of the informal organization.[7]

SYSTEMS APPROACH

A contemporary way of thinking about organizations is as entities consisting of a set of elements standing in interrelation among themselves and with the environment, or about organizations as systems. They exist in a supersystem, interact with other systems, and consist of subsystems. Originally generated by theoretical biologists, the general systems theory holds promise for study of man, his organizations, and literally atoms to galaxies.

This approach encourages development of an enlarged frame of reference for analyzing organization and individual behavior. Its wider perspective increases the likelihood of seeing the many forces that influence behavior within a particular system.

This approach is concerned with relationships among the organization, its internal and external environment, and whatever forces regulate interdependent adaption, innovation, and change. The task of administration is to build and strengthen organizations that will have the capacity to respond to changing environment. To do this, the administration must seek the optimum mix between frequent organizational changes that might harm desirable relationships and stability in relationships that may lead to organizational hardening of the arteries.

Summarizing the four major approaches to management, Steggert states:

> Traditional bureaucreatic theories, human relations theories and scientific management theories have all represented oversimplified undimensional perceptions of organizational behavior. Bureaucratic theories have fixated on problems of formal structure; human relations theories have been preoccupied with behavioral issues, and scientific management theories have been almost exclusively concerned with technological process matters. Contemporary organization theory reflects much less of these closed system approaches and is increasingly concerned with understanding and optimizing the interactions of structure/people/technology relationships.[8]

In sum, each of the four major approaches summarized here is founded on certain assumptions and lead to certain possible consequences. The executive who views primarily the work (scientific management) with little regard for the other as parts, may lose sight of agency objectives and social consequences. The executive preoccupied with the trappings of tradition and the formalization of every activity creates a rulebound rigid agency which makes adaption to change difficult. The executive engrossed in attention to adaptive behavior may fail to assess and strengthen the character and integrity of the agency.

While there are other approaches or schools in addition to those already mentioned, all models are abstractions from reality. Students will not find agencies that exactly match any model. Further, agencies will have characteristics of more than one model. The most fruitful way of helping students to think about using organization models and considering the practice consequence for their use is to have them look at each agency as a unique pattern of approaches which depend on a number of factors. Such factors might be the nature of the service provided, the technology for performing the service, and the environment of the organization.

FOOTNOTES

1. Drucker, Peter. Management, New York, Random House, 1975, p. 182.

2. Taylor, Frederick. Scientific Management, New York, Harper & Row, 1947, p. 39.

3. Etzioni, Amitai. Modern Organization, New Jersey, Prentice Hall, 1964, p. 20.

4. Taylor, Op. cit., p. 41.

5. Etzioni, Op. cit., p. 39.

6. MacGregor, Douglas. The Human Side of Enterprise, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1960, Chap. 2, 3, 4.

7. Etzioni, Op. cit., p. 40.

8. Steggert, F.X., "Organization Theory, Bureaucratic Influences and the Social Welfare Task." In Social Work Administration, Council of Social Work Education, Editor: Harry Schatz, New York City, 1970, p. 52.

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PART II. IMPLEMENTING STRUCTURES

PARTNERSHIPS, SETTINGS, MODELS, AND EVALUATION

Part II presents a set of structures as the means by which the values and knowledge bases described in Part I are implemented. Stanley Good addresses issues confronting the school-agency partnership in developing effective learning situations for social welfare management students. He portrays the essential components to be agreed to and understood between school and agency, areas of responsibility and how understanding is reached.

Kay Vail discusses the relationship between class and field as learning settings. She delineates the school's responsibility in preparing/and training field instructors, and planning for division of teaching/learning labor. Alternate structures to facilitate learning are included.

The next segment, Part II, deals with various issues involved in selecting learning settings. Criteria and principles are developed for identifying and choosing the agency, the field instructors, and learning opportunities.

Alexander Hawkins' analytic critique of various models of field experiences currently used in social work schools consists, among other things, of identification of points of departure from one basic pattern of field placement.

In the concluding segment of Part II, Kay Vail discusses evaluation of practice settings, field instructors, learning opportunities, and of student progress.

PARTNERSHIP BETWEEN SCHOOL AND AGENCY

Stanley Good

A partnership of practice and school providing for interaction between agency administration and school faculty is basic to development of effective curriculum of administration/management in the social services. Finestone comments:

> To meet these criteria for professional field instruction, a working partnership of class and field faculty is necessary. Conceptual learning in the field will not take place until class and field teachers identify important concepts and generalizations, share them, and share experiences in the methods through which they may be taught and learned. The total class curriculum will not be reflected in the field until channels and devices are strengthened or invented for class-field communication. An orientation to change is not educationally transmissable unless both class and field instructors are at least receptive to, if not actively involved in, change efforts...
>
> All these considerations, taken together, support the notion of a class-field partnership in an educational enterprise with mutual feedback of new developments contributing a dynamic for change.[1]

Such a partnership of school and practice would involve the practical experience of persons in agency management positions in helping to identify content for inclusion in classroom courses, to shared teaching in the classroom as well as to the teaching in the practicum. The patterns of responsibility for content and teaching may vary and should be flexible for the best possible use of knowledge, skills, and talents.

Faculty of the school who teach in this content area will need to initiate and maintain the system for this involvement with people in practice. They will reach out to the executive director, administrator, director and

to persons in the next organizational level of agency management activities and responsibilities. Many agency people will not have had formal training in administration. They will have participated in in-service training and will have developed their own philosophies and methods out of experience and necessity. This background provides an opportunity to offer the students a melding of practice experience and classroom theory by regular and planned availability of both.[2]

The partnership goal is to establish a viable relationship between school (faculty and students) and agency practice from which can emerge: 1) involvement of school faculty and practice persons in joint identification of: a) goals and objectives for the curriculum and b) necessary and desirable curriculum content for the classroom; 2) involvement of practicum faculty and other administrative staff of the agency in classroom teaching to complement university faculty; 3) planning for practicum teaching/learning geared to most effective learning and development of student ability; 4) involvement of classroom and practicum faculty and students in a practicum seminar for shared learning; 5) an open partnership of school and practice which the student can join to develop his learning by identifying his own learning goals and by negotiating with school and agency a contract for his learning, including objectives and goals; activities; responsibilities; expectations of student, school and agency; and by establishing measures of success.

Recent writings describing interaction between field and school in developing field experience offer a variety of patterns through which this partnership may be conceptualized. The Field Instruction Center

developed at Adelphi University locates a training center under faculty direction in a community base..."in order to develop and implement this multidifferential learning experience and practicum, the school and the agencies that constitute the center developed an advisory board and several teaching teams that consisted of agency and school administrators, field instructors, and faculty and student representatives."[3] Such a structure would provide a base for the field-faculty partnership to develop curriculum and practicum and to continue interaction as program develops.

In a somewhat different pattern, Knappe describes the training center concept in which the University of Iowa School of Social Work assigns a faculty person to relate to social services of the community, either in the university community or a more distant community, to develop the practicum base for graduate and undergraduate students. "Service is channeled through existing agencies in the community; responsibility for all clients remains with participating agencies. The center serves as home base for the student social worker. Clients are seen at the respective agencies. Instruction comes from the training center faculty."[4] In this pattern, a faculty member, the director of the training center, is regularly in touch with agency executives and supervisory staff. This, too, provides a framework within which faculty teaching the administrative content can relate immediately and continously with agency staff about development of curriculum and field experience.

While the school and agency are the partners that establish and maintain the structure for an effective learning/teaching situation, the student is an essential partner also. This presumes a maturity of the

student that enables identification and clear statement of career and learning goals and an ability to accept and carry through responsibility for major tasks, integrating theoretical material and the practical experience opportunities available. Neugeboren comments:

> In general, we have found that placing responsibility on students to make their own decisions in shaping their educational experiences has resulted in a high degree of motivation and involvement in the learning process, with the result of very adequate performance by all students.[5]

Knappe adds:

> Students come into the training center with different levels of experience, interests, and career goals. A hallmark of the training center concept is an individualized program that offers a combination of community perspective and a broad range of diverse experiences to each student. The teaching philosophy is based on the principle that graduate students are adult learners. These factors delineate the approach of the faculty to function as facilitators. The student is engaged as a learner first and foremost by connecting with his motivation and investment and second with his own particular learning bent or favored mode of learning.[6]

Lammert and Hagen state:

> In addition to these overall goals, individual student goals existed. Practica at this school are designed and negotiated by the student, who is responsible for identifying his learning objectives and the means of achieving them.[7]

Shapira states a challenge to programs as follows:

> It follows, I hope, from the preceding remarks that our image of the executive task in a welfare system is that of an initiator and innovator concerned primarily with transforming the system into a modern and effective tool for the achievement of social objectives. It should be clear that in building our program we would put greater emphasis on the innovative and initiating activities than on the stabilizing and maintenance tasks of the executive.[8]

In setting such expectations for students, both school and agency should do some recruiting among prospective students and those already enrolled to attract talented, mature persons. This recruiting would be designed to give

students a better understanding of the content of administration and its challenges and opportunities to affect the lives of people through policy development and innovating better ways to meet service needs.

This proposal suggests that a partnership of school, agency and student is basic to effective use of resources toward development of better leadership in administration of the social services. Areas of stress between school and agency present opportunities for creative working together toward mutual goals. These areas must be recognized to constructively manage their impact on working relationships. One element of such management may be to deliberately provide for much flexibility and individuality in the working relationships between school and practice allies.

One approach presented below, is to offer a beginning outline of responsibilities of each of the partners, within which each school develops its own plan.

School's Responsibility

The school's responsibility is to initiate and maintain a pattern of communication and interaction with administrative agency staff toward goals of:

1. Joint determination of goals and curriculum content.
2. Developing guides for school/agency interaction in providing practicum experiences.
3. Providing patterns for involvement of practicum faculty and agency staff in classroom teaching to complement faculty teaching.
4. Selection of students for this particular curriculum content area.
5. Faculty advising to assist student in defining goals--both learning and career.
6. Managing the process for student advising and planning for effective use of resources of school, agency, and community.

Agency's Responsibility

The agency's responsibility is to:

1. Enter into a full partnership with the school in planning, developing, and carrying out the educational program.

2. Provide access to a range of experiences for students.

3. Provide designated staff with time to be involved in teaching and managing the practicum experience in the agency and relating to the school.

Student's Responsibility

The student's responsibility is to:

1. Identify own learning and career goals.

2. Assume responsibility for negotiating with the agency for desired learning experiences, for clarification of his relationships to agency and school. These include services to the agency, expectations of performance, learning goals, availability and expectations of supervision, and basis for evaluation.

The process by which the student would move into the partnership might be somewhat as follows:

1. Student and faculty advisor identify the student's interest, career and learning goals.

2. Faculty advisor provides information about the practicum learning opportunities and helps student select possible practicum experiences and sites.

3. Within the relationship structure between school and agencies, student interviews practicum faculty and other staff at selected agencies to explore the availability of the desired learning.

4. Student develops, with consultation of practicum faculty, and faculty advisor (as needed) a contract which specifies his learning goals, activities in service to the agency, his learning expectations, agency's expectations of students, agreements as to supervision, and evaluation of progress.

5. Student, practicum faculty, and advisor together periodically review contract, student learning, effect changes where appropriate, and discuss evaluation of student's learning.

6. All students participate in a practicum seminar, perhaps entitled "Applied Management Seminar" and integral to the practicum. Students prepare analytic reports of projects in which they are engaged, relating their work into a theoretical frame. They are primarily responsible for the discussion leadership during the seminar. (This "live" case material gives the student group access to a wide range of management tasks and activities.) Other seminar participants include practicum faculty, agency staff, and classroom faculty, thus providing interesting and challenging learning for all.

Nell Lipscomb describes experiences that go even further toward integration of practicum and class learnings:

> In an effort to maximize the learning experiences of the students in the field, periodic consultations between the training center instructor and classroom faculty were held as field and class assignments converged in social policy class studies, knowledge building, and research practicum. Through this linkage between class and field, students in a social policy class, for example, could devote their policy research to actual legislative needs for the State of Louisiana. Research practica were developed from the field research on selected issues of concern to Representative Taylor. In some instances, these resulted in position papers and/or legislative proposals.[9]

Lambert and Hagen comment:

> During the second academic year, several in-service training sessions were held. They related to theoretical issues that had arisen out of the practice involvement; for instance one such session dealt with theoretical models for viewing communities, another dealt with specific interviewing skills appropriately utilized in work with community leaders. In a sense these sessions helped bridge the gap between the field placement and classroom instruction in that they were specifically related to the placement but were more theoretically oriented than the usual group consultation sessions.[10]

In a different context, Knappe comments:

> A most vital issue revolves around the personnel who make up the system. The program demands a unique kind of faculty--facilitators who can be comfortable in a democratic atmosphere and who are able

> to maintain the delicate balance of shared authority in their relationship with students. Conversely, it demands students who are willing to accept the responsibility inherent in such an atmosphere of freedom and shared authority. Admittedly, no educational experience can be all things to all people. However, it can be said that the Cedar Rapids Training Center provides a milieu in which adult learners can acquire the art of utilization of self in applying knowledge appropriately.[11]

Finestone provides further insight into the need and values for this interaction between field and class with these comments:

> The final criterion for professional field instruction is feedback of knowledge from field to class; a reverse addition to the usual principle that the field should reflect what goes on in the class curriculum. Field-class feedback, as a goal, is inseparable from conceptions of what the relation of class to field should be in professional education for social work. The two-way reciprocal impact has not been sufficiently stressed in current conceptions of the nature of the relationships between class and field teaching and learning...If there is a concern with encouragement of field-class feedback, a variety of effective devices will be found... The criteria for professional field instruction are very difficult to achieve, and, in a sense, are always striven for and never fully achieved. The coordinated efforts of all educators in class and field are needed to link research and theory, theory and practice, practice and curriculum.[12]

It is the premise of this paper that the concept of a three-way partnership of school of social work faculty, agency administrative staff representing practice, and students would provide a base for effective development of goals, content, and patterns of interaction that would lead to identification and availability of the resource each has to offer. This bringing together of the special interests and contributions of education, practice, and student may offer a means of constructively directing the stresses that the inherent differences of viewpoint and need of each will produce. It is clear to me that we need each other, and social services need the best we can produce in terms of effective leadership based on human values, skills and knowledge, and dedicated to improved human services.

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5. Neugeboren, Op. cit., p. 42.

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PARTNERSHIP BETWEEN CLASS AND FIELD

Kay Vail

In the partnership between class and field, the school's responsibility is to: be clear about purpose, goals, and expectations of the field experience; be sure these are communicated to students and field instructors; provide training, resource, consultation, and support to field instructors; establish a built-in evaluation system of the total program; and ensure a feedback loop. The demands on agencies which provide administrative field experience may be greater and have more impact on the total agency than some of the more traditional learning experiences they have provided. This places increased responsibility on the school to be specific in its requests and in the division of labor.

As a school enters into planning for field practice in administration, potential field instructors should be identified and involved. Their participation in the initial phase may help to minimize problems which arise around lack of clear understanding of program purpose and goals. Their input also can add a degree of realism about what potentials and constraints may exist. Criteria for field setting and instructor, delineated by the group who will be in those roles, can help to establish acceptable expectations, and perhaps, offer some degree of quality control beyond the school's jurisdiction. One human element which can enter the situation is the reaction to the threat a student could pose to an administrator. The administrator's involvement in planning and his/her preparation for the field instructor role may serve to minimize that dynamic.

As has been pointed out in the discussion of school-agency relationships, "a partnership of practice and school providing for interaction between agency administration and school faculty is basic to development of effective curriculum for administration/management in the social services."

The planning process for initiating such curriculum involves three major activities: 1) determination of purposes and objectives; 2) statement of tasks that must be performed to accomplish those purposes and objectives; and 3) description of methods to be used in performing the tasks.

These major activities also include attention to: 1) who is responsible for the tasks to be performed; 2) what methods of evaluation and review will be used; 3) a timetable for task accomplishment; and 4) what criterion of value will be placed upon the goals.

In light of these principles, the following steps in planning are suggested. The school as a whole, it is assumed, after consideration of pertinent data, has endorsed the pursuit of an administration program and has identified the faculty responsible for its development. This assumption of endorsement should reveal itself in a commitment to the allocation or reallocation of resources such as faculty time and other support for the school's decision.

The planning process follows the steps identified below:

Step one includes identification of potential field settings and field instructors. A planning task force is established with membership composed of representatives from the potential field agencies and the faculty. Tasks to be completed by this group include: 1) determine program purpose and goals; 2) establish criteria for selection of field setting, field

instructor, and practice assignments; 3) define content, learning objectives, and performance behaviors; 4) design an evaluation system; and 5) establish a time frame for initiating the program.

Step two is taken after the task force has completed its work outlined above. The plan is then presented to a larger group of potential participants, sanctioners, and general faculty, for reaction, input, and support.

Step three, the responsiblity of the task force, includes finalizing the plan and establishing the means for implementing it. At that point, some division of work might be identified, based on the defined functions of school/agency/field instructor.

At Step four students are identified. Consideration is given to their past experience, demonstrated skills, and career goals. Data gathered in this process leads to Step five which is the final selection of field settings and instructors and matching students to placements.

Step six is implementation, including orientation of students to the setting; establishment of individual learning objectives and contracting for their achievement; and clarification of expectations of school/agency/field instructor/student.

Step seven leads to evaluation, revision as necessary, and reimplementation. Field instructors should be given opportunity to identify their own learning needs and, with the faculty, devise an ongoing field instructor development plan.

The following outline proposes one possible design for field instructor training; it traces an entire training sequence.

1. Preservice An overview of the program--its rationale, initiation, and evolution

   Field instructor responsibilities

   The Agency and its commitment

   The School and its responsibility

   The Details of field instructor job

      Supervision/teaching

      Assignments

      Evaluation/grading

      Reporting/accountability

      Participation in consultation, training, planning

      How to begin with students

   The Curriculum details

      Classroom content

      Practice content

      Mutual responsibilities

   Printed materials for distribution such as bibliographies and course outlines

2. Inservice - Educational supervision course for field instructors 6-10 sessions

   Small interest groups focused on areas of general and specific knowledge

   Opportunity to attend classes or some special classes for field instructors

   Regularly scheduled conferences with faculty liaison

3. Some Design for Self-Learning--Programmed reading, tapes, etc.

Since field instructors in this area may be top executives with many demands on their time, the school should make every effort to devise alternative methods for training and development. These opportunities must be presented so that recognition is given to the practice wisdom already possessed. Again, support for involving the field instructor in planning for his training is essential. Perhaps contract learning might be a viable approach with field instructors.

In addition to being clear about preparation of field instructors and, subsequently , providing various learning structures, there also needs to be clarity about what content is appropriately taught by field instructors. This matter and attendant issues are addressed below.

A constant concern in social work education is the integration of class and field. Are those who teach assuming too much responsibility for this? Integration occurs with the individual student as he begins to assimilate and organize his learning. The educational program should provide the climate and stimulation so it can happen. The task is to focus on the compatibility of class and field teaching. As content is developed and delegation of responsibility for teaching is made, attention should be given to: 1) what raw content is the primary responsibility of the field instructor and of the classroom teacher; 2) what content is mutually shared; 3) what reinforcement each has to the other; and 4) how sequence and continuity can be achieved. This kind of division of labor requires an open and consistent communication pattern as well as planning time. This is closely allied to the team-teaching concept and could well be delivered in a similar manner.

Some areas, perhaps, are more effectively presented and absorbed in a particular setting and through particular learning methods. The way in which an individual student learns might require differing patterns for teaching some content areas, but in general, designations could be made. The rationale for assigning content areas might be based on the appropriateness of experiential learning, availability of immediate application, particular expertise to be found in the agency, and special interests of the instructors involved. There will, and should be, some duplication of content teaching in both class and field. Regardless of how the teaching functions are shared, the school's ultimate responsibility is to assure that learning opportunities are provided through which the student can achieve the expected performance objectives.

In the chart which follows, some placement of primary teaching responsibility is suggested. Specific content and methods for teaching under each of the knowledges need to be more clearly defined by the field instructor and the faculty. This chart is designed to follow the chart presented on pages 64-66. The entries are intended only to suggest; this presentation is neither definitive nor exhaustive.

The settings for the field teaching should be understood to include not only the traditional forms of field teaching (the tutorial method) but a range of options: integrating seminars, consultations, tandem supervision, team or staff settings (variants of a group form.) This proposal is intended to portray the fact that learning may go on in a variety of settings--that there may be a whole spectrum of middle grounds for learning, not simply classroom vis-a-vis field agency. Again, in keeping with the tone of this document, the intention here is to suggest a range of possibilities.

CHART

MANAGERIAL FUNCTIONS	FIELD TEACHING	CLASSROOM
Planning	Specific planning technique(s) Needs assessment Decision-making Policy analysis Cost benefit analysis	Stated on chart, Pages 64-66
Organizing	System structuring Communication patterns Organization--structure and process Board and committee technology	
Staffing	Job descriptions Staff manuals Personnel policies and procedures Staff recruitment, selection, assignment, separation Grievance procedures Training methods Staff development planning and implementation Performance appraisal Team concepts Group decision-making Conflict management Supervision Work with volunteers	
Directing	Political and legislative processes Interagency cooperation Organizational environment Management of time Delegation Use of authority Public information	
Controlling	Budgeting and fiscal control Accountability Specific information system Report writing Proposal writing	
Evaluating	Cost benefit analysis Evaluation and process	

CRITERIA AND PRINCIPLES FOR LEARNING STRUCTURES

Sue Henry

The importance of the educationally based practicum experience must not be minimized. Hence, it is worth calling attention to the set of educational principles, presented below, which are basic to all decisions pertaining to the field. Some of these, identified in an earlier document,* bear repeating. They are intended to complement the criteria for learning experiences which are found in the Council on Social Work Education (C.S.W.E.) Manual of Accrediting Standards and may, in some cases, represent only a restatement of those criteria.

1. Congruence and articulation should exist between field practice assignments and classroom content to facilitate transfer and applicability of learning.

2. Criteria and expectations for amount of time spent in the field; availability of field instructor; availability of office space, telephone supplies; appropriateness of assignments and practice with a range of client units and modalities, which apply to any student should apply to students of administrative practice.

3. Assignments selected for learning opportunities should be actual agency tasks, encompassable in the time available, and capable of being sustained to completion.

4. Students who are given administrative assignments should have had substantial prior employment experience in a social welfare service. That experience must include direct service functions and, desirably, some indirect service functions.

5. Assignments should take into account the agency's size and complexity and the student's prior employment in order to capitalize on readiness to learn.

* Henry, Sue. "Guidelines for Field Experience in Social Work Education for Management in Social Welfare," Project Report Volume I, Elisabeth Schaub, editor. School of Social Work, University of Pennsylvania, 1975.

6. Top-level agency executives should provide the field instruction, even though students' assignments may involve them with others in the structure, to assure that students' roles and activities carry the legitimation of authority necessary for effective functioning.

7. Field instruction lodged with top-level executive personnel will provide a wider range of assignments than those available elsewhere in the structure.

8. A method should be provided for ongoing analysis, monitoring, and feedback in order to make changes in assignment or field instruction early and in an informed fashion.

9. Assignments should programmatically express the values and ethics of the social work profession and/or afford opportunity to confront the practice situation with professional values and ethics.

10. The assignments should help students to identify indicators of institutional racism and to develop appropriate strategies for eliminating racist policies, practices, and procedures.

Criteria for selecting field agencies for student placement should flow from these educational principles as should that governing choices of field instructors and learning opportunities. The criteria which are suggested, below, are those which add to the general criteria as promulgated by the C.S.W.E. Manual of Accrediting Standards. The specification which is added has to do with sharpening the management focus of this document.

Obviously, there is a necessity for compatibility of the goals of the field agency (or department or unit, when in a multi-disciplinary setting, or the organization itself when not a social welfare organization) with the values and ethics of the social work profession. Also, it is important that the policy-making and/or other administrative units value professional education to the extent of allocating or reallocating time, space and other supports. Not only must sound personnel policies and practices be extant, but there should be evidence that the agency recognizes the operation of institutional racism and has some commitment to its eradication. At least, the agency should be open to examination of the issue.

Beyond these expectations, which may be used in selecting field settings, the agency should be able to communicate in detail its learning opportunities for administrative practice. The agency should agree to invest the appropriate amount of authority and responsibility in the student who carries out administrative duties. Necessarily, the agency should agree to provide assignments which are actual agency tasks, fulfilling actual agency responsibilities as well as facilitating student learning.

Finally, when the student is placed in a field setting, top-level executives should be assigned as field instructors even though the student's work may be done elsewhere in the structure and in consultation with another staff member. It is only when the last three criteria are adhered to that the student may be assured of the bureaucratic support necessary to perform and learn administrative practice.

Again, the criteria which operates with respect to selection of field instructors are not different from those mandated by the C.S.W.E. These criteria specify that a field instructor's qualifications have to do with professional education, commitment to the profession, competence in practice, and interest and competence in teaching. Regarding the criterion that top-level executives be assigned as field instructors, locating a social worker to serve may not always be possible. In this event, social work teaching must be available through some supplementary arrangement.

Especially when the field instructor is a top-level executive, issues of allocation of time and availability become pressing. While the reality of time demands on the schedule of administrators is not minimized, teaching should not be diminished either. In the contractual arrangement between school and agency, time commitments tied to avialability of specific personnel should be spelled out as standards to be observed.

Means by which field practice assignments are selected and designed should follow the same educational principles identified earlier. This suggests that the person within the setting responsible for student assignments should have screened and reviewed possible agency tasks with regard to the specific learnings--opportunities to practice specified behavior imbedded in those tasks. Field practice assignments may be selected and developed as a kind of match between the student's expressed learning needs and goals, the field instructor's assessment of the learning needs, and the learning opportunities inherent in the practice assignments which are composed of agency tasks designated for student learning.

Students selected for field placement assignment should be screened carefully and efforts made to identify those who demonstrate analytic skills, interpersonal skills, clarity and conciseness in oral and written communication, and a basic identity with social work.

FIELD INSTRUCTION PATTERNS AND OPTIONS

Alexander Hawkins

To ascertain various field work models used for management in social welfare, five schools of social work which have strong management programs were queried for specific details.

Responses were received from the Universities of Maryland, Michigan, and Southern California. The University of Maryland program will be described in detail while the other two programs will be described briefly to portray their nature and to present other options.

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

The University of Southern California's Social Work Program offers a dual program over a two-calendar-year period with the School of Public Administration. Successful completion leads to conferring of both MSW and MPA degrees. The field practice experiences are usually assignments to executives of larger public welfare agencies and smaller private agencies. Typical field experiences involve work with board committees, work on budgets, and community relations as illustrative of activities. Field instruction is provided by the executive who submits written evaluations.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

The University of Michigan administration field practice component includes an initial laboratory experience followed by a block placement. The laboratory experience exposes students to practice via observations and experiences. Other aspects include the beginning of training in such

skills as: memo writing, grantsmanship, committee staffing, and personnel management. The block field placement is virtually three and one half months of full time field work. A concurrent administration practicum is offered for students to share their perspectives. The purpose of the practicum is for integration on a seminar basis rather than an academic course.

Planning is in process for possibly more individualization based on the needs of different students. In addition, it is expected that sets of skill modules will be offered in such areas as budgeting, committee management, and grant writing.

UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND

The University of Maryland management field practice encompasses two separate but distinct fields--social strategy and social administration.

The social administration field instruction placement is preceded by core courses, including basic administration methods. Along with the field instruction, a second administration course is pursued. The program has 14 knowledge objectives, 12 skill objectives, and nine attitude objectives. Field instruction is for 30 hours weekly throughout two semesters. The University's Field Administration Manual spells out in considerable detail the performance objectives in knowledge, skill, and attitude terms.[1] An additional feature of the Manual is the attempt to partition levels of performance on a quality criterion.

To meet the needs of all students, two different educational tracks are used, one generic and the other specialized. The generic curriculum is common to all students while in-depth specialization is available in

such content areas as supervision, staff development and training, program analysis and program development, and program management. The field instruction manual is very clear and specific in delineating both qualitative and quantitative student performance expectations.

The design of social strategy practice is sketched out in a document which sets forth the basic material of field instruction.[2]

The social strategy track, while not specifically directed toward administrative activities, nonetheless encompasses many of the same or similar behaviors as those used by an administrator of social welfare services. Perhaps one point of differentiation is the level of echelon occupied in an organizational hierarchy by one who specializes in the social administration track or in the social strategy track. In particular, the social administration track student might hold career goals to occupy a mid- or higher-level management position while a social strategy track student would be closer to the direct service line position.

The social strategy field work placement includes two semesters with an option of two additional semesters. A minimum of 30 hours weekly is spent in field placement, including a two-hour weekly field instruction seminar. In addition to the field assignment, full time students are also enrolled in classes. A range of agencies are used for such activities as neighborhood community work, planning, policy development, and interagency organizing.

The field instruction program in general is designed to provide an opportunity for theory integration and practice. Components of learning are identified in the document cited immediately above. These include

work with people to effect social change, organizing, coordinating activities, planning activities, other learning opportunities, and research activities. Integral parts of each learning area are the identified skill components.

Mutual expectations of agency, school, and student are delineated as well as definition of roles such as faculty, field instructor, and task supervisor. Criteria for evaluation of field encompass performance areas and description of each.

OPTIONS

The programs discussed above (but in particular the social administration program at Maryland) lend themselves to analysis which suggests points at which options could be introduced. Some of these variations are presented and discussed below to offer a broad range of possibilities or suggestions of alternate structures to assist designers of field curricula to tailor a program to their own situations.

1. In the Maryland management field model, all semesters of field instruction are in the same setting. A proposed option is that one or more setting may be used for field instruction. This type of plan would expose students to different approaches of various agencies. In the use of alternate and multiple settings, the expected result would be more breadth in the range of experiences.

2. The particular model used provides for two terms of field instruction in management as an alternative for more mature students who have well defined educational goals, the entire four terms of field instruction might be in a management placement.

3. Instead of assignment of students to a particular agency, an alternative might be a consortium that would provide different educational experiences with the faculty based advisor. As an example of how this would work in practice: X agency might be very effective in its handling of intrastaff, interpersonal relationship problems. The student would be assigned to X agency for this aspect of learning and field practice but assignment would not necessarily be limited to this focus.

Other possible areas of experience in the consortium might include work with legislative and regulatory administrative agencies, the political process in management, or fiscal accounting and management as examples.

4. Module field experiences might consist of three terms of conventional field placement that would be inclusive of generic management field placement for one or more terms, followed by one term in which there would be module experiences in which the student and faculty advisor would identify specific learning tasks.

Field education needs of management students would be compiled and disseminated to the management of training agencies who would then communicate to faculty persons when any of the needed types of experiences are available. This plan would provide for the use of constellation of agencies for specific learning tasks.

This option differs from the consortium option in that the consortium experience would be for a continuous period of time, such as a term or more, while the learning module experiences would be limited to the desired learning experiences that are available at the specific agency.

FOOTNOTES

1. Social Administration Field Instruction Manual, University of Maryland School of Social Work and Community Planning, January, 1976.

2. Social Strategy Field Instruction Manual, University of Maryland, School Work and Community Planning, January, 1976.

A MODEL FOR EVALUATION AND PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

Kay Vail

A problem to be confronted in the practice area is that of establishing objectives which hold the same meaning for students, field instructors, agencies, and the school. It is more than a matter of compatibility of perception; the objectives must be measurable. Achieving a totally objective measurement is difficult, but subjectivity can be kept to a reasonable degree through clearly defined and agreed upon expectations.

Table I illustrates one formulation for delineating the interrelationships of school, agency, field instructor, and student in developing and implementing the practice experience goals as well as the mutual responsibility for appraising effectiveness. This formulation assumes:

1. Clearly defined criteria for selection of practice settings and field instructors.
2. Attention to specific learning needs, interests, and career goals of students.
3. Recognition of particular capabilities of field instructors and settings for providing learning opportunities.
4. Agreement with and understanding of the broad program goals.
5. Use of contracting as a method of clarifying division of labor and accountability.

TABLE I

	School	Agency	Field Instructor	Student
Broad overall program Goals	X	X	X	X
Implementing objectives	X	X	X	X
Performance skill demonstration			X	X
Level of achievement			X	X
Evaluation	X	X	X	X

The overall goals for the program should be stated and shared with all persons involved. For example, "the development of analytic, interactional, and technical administrative skills that can be used in human service organizations" should reflect the hoped-for end result and should apply to all participants. These might be considered minimum expectations. The school, agency, field instructor and student share in the process of goal formulation, although the school has primary responsibility for this function.

Specific objectives and ways to implement them should be stated for each major curriculum area, such as each identified managerial function. For example, "to demonstrate ability to use planning technologies" should be a minimum expectation of all participants. This process, again, requires participation across the board and specifies who assumes what responsibilities. This phase of objective identification generates the basis for contracts

between school and agency, field instructor, student, etc. The measurement of effectiveness is then related to this objective achievement with varying degrees of specificity as defined by the contractors.

The field instructor and the student develop performance or skill demonstration activities related to the program goals and implementing objectives, and based on particular interests, career goals, and learning needs of the student--for example, "to implement a planning assignment with the _____program using PPBS." These should be contracted with a time frame so that progress can be monitored.

A set of measurements should be developed for each performance activity. The field instructor and student should determine together what constitutes a satisfactory level of achievement, what is unacceptable, and what might exceed expectation. The assessment of each activity then indicates satisfactory accomplishment in a certain area of need for futher effort. The combination of these activity ratings provides the data for a summary and evaluation of the total student experience.

Table II, which follows, further identifies the responsibilities for evaluation. The measures of effectiveness are based on the contracted objectives and implementation. As the agreements are reviewed, identification of what was done well and opportunities for improvement lead to continued planning.

TABLE II

EVALUATION

INPUT TO:	FROM:
School	Agency Field Instructor Student
Agency	Field Instructor School Student
Field Instructor	School Agency Student
Student	School Agency Field Instructor

The school is responsible for reviewing its role in the practice experience with the agency, field instructor, and student. The agency reviews its role with the school, field instructor, and student, as do the field instructor and the student review their roles with the others. Differences in evaluation with each set of relationships may be expected due to the nature of the contracts. The school-agency relationship and the field instructor-student relationship might differ from the agency-student relationship. In any case, the evaluation process is an intertwining of the four components and should be concerned with the stated purpose, identified goals and objectives, and performance outcomes at all levels.

PART III. KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS, VALUES

A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND A MODEL

Part III presents the essential curricular components of knowledge, skills, and values. The knowledge and skill expectations for management responsibilities are defined by a conceptual framework developed by Robert M. Ryan. He delineates a scheme for identifying levels of competance in administrative processes which are expected to be achieved by social workers in a range of organizational positions. This paper summarizes all that precedes it and sets forth the necessary conceptual framework to guide curriculum design in the future.

Part III concludes with Chart I which portrays in a schemata the design of a total curriculum. This chart is arranged according to managerial function(s), knowledge (both general and specific) used, performance objectives, practice assignments, and classroom content. The content which fills the cells of the chart is here specified to the management function in social welfare. Other content could fill the cells just as well, depending on the definition of the managerial enterprise. No attempt was made to be definitive or exhaustive in delineating the possible learning outcomes or structures. Those who use this material are encouraged to expand upon it. The model is presented as a prototype for arraying learning outcomes and structures in management and in other endeavors of the social welfare enterprise.

A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Robert M. Ryan

Most professional social workers, for the forseeable future, will be employed in formal organizations and must be prepared, as a routine part of their professional practice, to engage those organizations in planned change efforts. Many of these professionals will move into managerial positions while an equally large number will continue to engage in clinical, planning, and research activities, with little or no direct assumption of management responsibilities.

This paper outlines a conceptual framework for identifying knowledge, skills, and values which should be included in the curriculum of a social work school emphasizing administrative/management processes. This framework assumes that every professional social worker should have some understanding of administrative processes and that this understanding will vary in relation to his or her work responsibilities.

Concurrently, it is assumed that the trend of social workers moving into managerial positions, based on demonstrated competence in the delivery of direct services, is no longer a viable pattern. Changing expectations concerning the fiscal support of social services, increased demands for accountability and responsible management of organizations, coupled with increased levels of sophistication on the part of the general public concerning the demands placed on human service organizations for the efficient and effective delivery of services are but a few of the factors leading to an increase in the employment of persons with demonstrated administrative competence for key administrative positions in the human services.

If social work is to continue to have a significant impact in the human services arena, it is essential for this profession to begin developing managers who can effectively compete with managers from other disciplines for key decision-making positions. To this end, social work does not have to relinquish its long held value stance for the development of the disenfranchised in our society through the provision of direct services. Rather, a set of competencies focusing upon the development and maintenance of organizations is required for the continued realization of this basic purpose of social work.

FUNCTIONS

A variety of conceptualizations of managerial functions have been articulated through the years, ranging from the work of Taylor in the early 1900's through Barnard to the more recent systems views represented by the works of Cleland and King and Katz and Kahn.[1] The view accepted for illustrative purposes here, Koontz and O'Donnell, divides managerial processes into six major functional areas: planning, organizing and coordinating, staffing, directing, controlling, and evaluating.[2]

This formulation emphasizes the functional responsibilities of management, making it conducive to an articulation of differing levels of responsibility. This was considered important since the major purpose of this paper is to outline a conceptual framework for identifying administrative content for inclusion in educational programs to be taught to all social workers as well as the identification of content appropriate to that part of a curriculum designed for students wishing to develop competency in management per se.

Simultaneously, such a conceptual framework must address the question of relevant learning opportunities in the field that will provide the student

an opportunity to gain first hand experience, thereby moving from knowing to understanding in testing out classroom knowledge. This distinction between knowing and understanding is based on the assumption that a qualitative difference exists between the acquisition of knowledge and its application in actual situations. It is in the application of knowledge that understanding is achieved. Skill acquired with that combination of knowing-doing-understanding becomes manifest as competency.

A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Inevitably, faculty must make decisions concerning the school's curriculum. Inherent to this decision-making process is a decision to exclude certain content. There is no easy way of doing this. In the final analysis, value positions of the faculty making those decisions is probably the most critical factor.

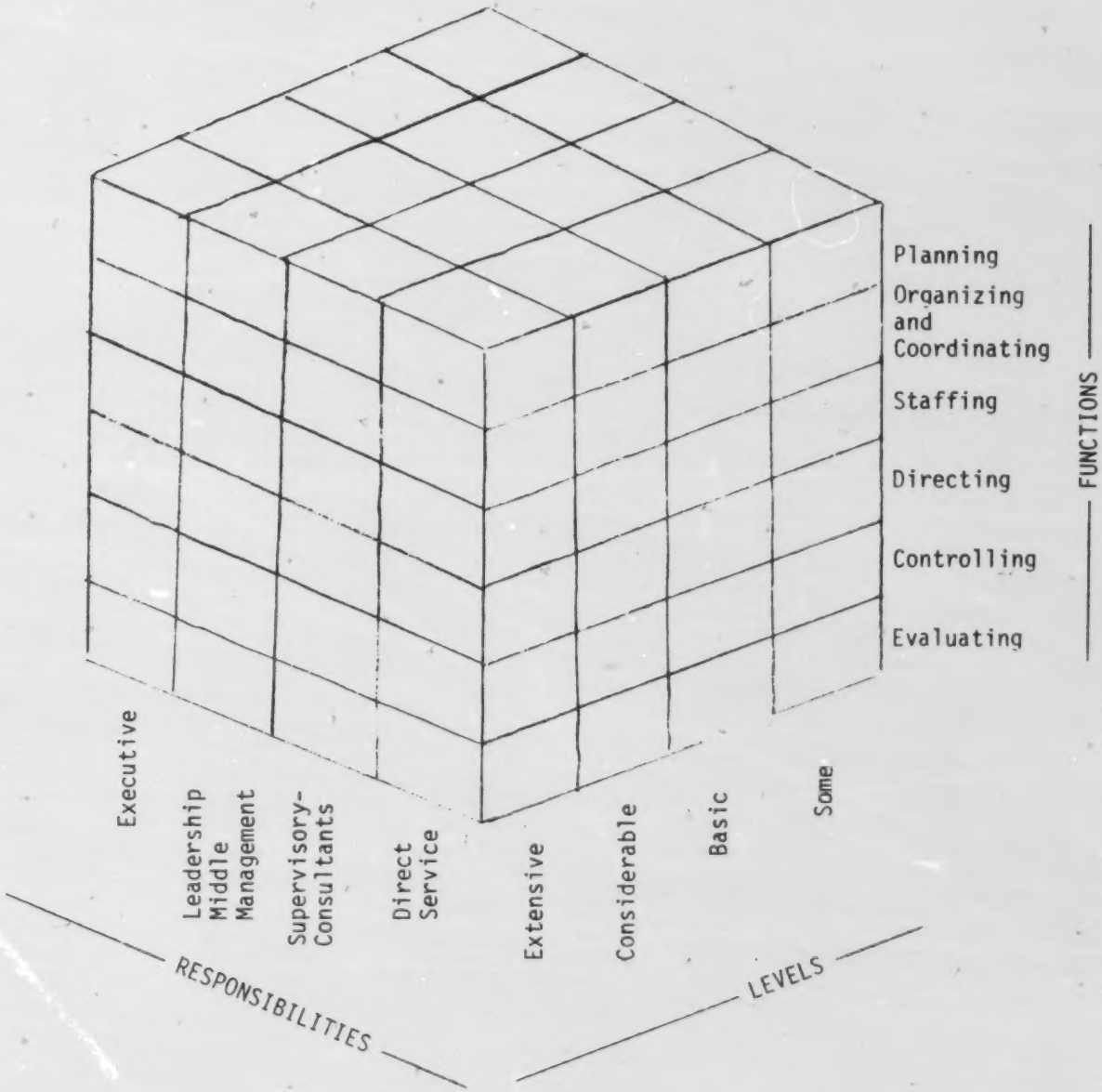
A purpose of this paper is to assist faculty decision making in the selection of appropriate administration-management content for inclusion in the curriculum. Figure 1, as follows, illustrates a three dimensional scheme suggested for evaluating the nature, level, and thrust of such content.[3]

Responsibilities. The responsibilities dimension recognizes four different, but related, thrusts which must be considered. These are presented as broad points along a continuum with direct serivce workers at one end of this continuum being perceived as the consumers of administrative processes. Direct service workers are defined as consumers here only in the sense that they represent that group least directly involved in administrative processes. Yet, in fulfilling the purposes of a social welfare organization--the delivery of direct services--that group is most directly affected by administrative processes.

FIGURE 1

A MATRIX FOR SELECTING RELEVANT

ADMINISTRATION-MANAGEMENT CURRICULUM CONTENT



At the opposite end of this continuum is the executive who, relative to the direct serivce worker, spends little or no time in fulfilling the purposes of the organization--delivery of direct service--but devotes the majority of his/her time to the acquisition and expenditure of resources for fulfilling the organization's purpose.

Between these two extremes are the supervisory-consultative and the middle management-leadership categories. As with the preceeding two categories, these two points of the continuum, moving from right to left, represent increasing levels of administrative responsibility and decreasing levels of direct service responsibility. The leadership-middle management category is intended to convey that this level of responsibility may simultaneously incorporate the executive of a small organization and/or top levels of management in a medium-complex to large organization. The executive, as conceptualized here, is the top leadership position in medium-complex to large organizations.

The assumption is made with this scheme that as one moves along a continuum from direct service to administration, one's executive competence, however derived, will increase in such functions as program planning, staffing, controlling, and evaluation. One may attain that competence in three generally recognized ways--through practice experience, education, or some combination of the two. Education is understood to include inservice training, continuing education, and formal academic programs. The framework outline here is applicable to all three.

Budgeting provides an extreme yet clear case in point. Direct service workers are the major source of expenditure of fiscal resources through salary, use of secretarial time, and utilities. Yet direct service

workers spend little or no time in acquiring fiscal resources. While the executive consumes little of the organization's fiscal resources, he does consume a major portion of those resources related to the acquisition, control, etc. of the organization's total resources. The executive must know where and how to procure fiscal resources while the direct service worker needs to know the limitations of those resources. The knowledge and skill required of supervisory and middle management staff will vary with organization size. In small organization, budgeting related issues may be the sole domain of the executive. Accounting, grantsmanship, and other fiscal matters may be spread among several middle management level staff in a large organization.

Levels. The second dimension of this framework, levels, is intended to suggest how much a practitioner should know and be able to do with respect to administrative processes. As with the responsibilities dimension, the levels dimension is conceived as a continuum moving from right to left. In other words, the some category is understood to reflect a level of knowledge and skill appropriate to the direct service worker while the extensive category reflects the knowledge and skill appropriate to an executive position. The basic and considerable levels reflect middle-range points along this continuum. They represent growth in knowledge and skill as the practitioner progressively assumes more complex administrative responsibilities.

Like the responsibilities dimension, the levels dimension suggests one's competence, however derived, will increase in such functions as organizing and coordinating, directing, evaluation, etc. Unlike the responsibilities idea, the levels concept must be addressed relative to

two interlocking elements--knowledge and skill. One can know about a great many things but be able to do a limited number of them. It is possible to have a total grasp of the major technologies for managing an organization yet be at a total loss regarding such a basic acitvity as where to begin in implementation of management by objectives, for example. In short, academic knowledge is not sufficient to a definition of competence. One must also be able to do.

The levels dimension is conceived to acknowledge those two elements of competence. An individual's level of knowledge, in most instances, is higher than his level of skill. The two will be closest for those persons with a wide range of administrative experiences over a long period of time and most clearly separated for those persons with a high level of academic experiences but little practice experience. The development of skill occurs in the application of theoretical concepts to live practice situations. The greater the opportunity for application and testing of theoretical concepts, the smaller the schism between knowledge and skill.

Continuing the budgetary illustration, the executive of a medium size organization would be expected to know about and do line item, program, and, perhaps, performance budgeting. This actual work may be assigned to an accountant and personnel manager (middle management level) for implementation. This suggests equal levels of knowledge by executive and some middle management persons. Functionally, the accountant and personnel manager are expected to have higher levels of skill in these areas since they represent current work assignments.

Supervisory level staff would know about the budget as it relates to their particular units--how it was derived, size, etc. If performance budgeting were an integral part of the agency's operations, supervisory level staff would be even more sophisticated about budgetary matters since personnel evaluations would be directly related to budgetary issues. Expectations of direct service staff would necessarily increase in the case of performance budgeting in view of the nature of personnel evaluations.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

The words functions, levels, and responsibilities used in Figure 1, identify three dimensions that are vital to selecting classroom content and defining field activities for students to develop administrative competence. All professional social workers must have competence in administrative processes; the amount of competence will vary in relation to the work assignment of the practitioner.

A rationale for the functions dimension was presented earlier in this paper. Any one of a dozen or more conceptualizations could have been employed without doing violence to the basic ideas set forth here. The critical point is to articulate a set of functions conceptually that can be broken down into specific activities or tasks a person must pursue to gain an identifiable set of functional skills.

The levels typology was addressed with respect to differentiating between knowledge and skill. This idea comes into sharper focus if the reader views the some category as one end of a continuum where the worker is expected to engage primarily in direct service activities and perceives the organization as a base of support for the delivery of those services.

At the other end of this continuum, in the extensive category, a practitioner is conceived to be functioning as a skilled executive charged with assuming primary leadership activities for the total organization. An ideal MSW program might realistically aim for the considerable category with respect to level of knowledge and for the basic category with respect to level of skill as the expected level of functioning upon graduation.

A SUGGESTED TYPOLOGY[4]

SOME:	Knowledge of terms, principles, and skills sufficient to participate in the common administrative processes affecting a direct service practitioner.
BASIC:	Knowledge and skills sufficient to perform the ordinary work and solve ordinary problems of a program manager.
CONSIDERABLE:	Knowledge and skill sufficient to do the ordinary work and solve some unusual and difficult problems facing organization managers.
EXTENSIVE:	Knowledge and skill sufficient to have mastery of the field and to solve the most difficult and unusual problems in an organization's leadership.

Implicit to this typology is the assumption that as one moves along the continuum from some to extensive, the level of complexity of knowledge and skill increases. This assumption infers that a manager is competent to engage in all those activities at a defined level--considerable, as well as all of those activities at lower levels--basic and some; but not necessary those at the higher level--extensive. Competence, as used here, refers to demonstrated application of knowledge and skill in actual situations. This concept might be further clarified by a description of expected behavior of the worker.

SOME: The worker should know organizational structure, including sources of sanction, lines of authority and responsibility, and have a general awareness of the organization's administrative processes.

BASIC: The worker should be able to assume some administrative responsibilities such as supervision and staff development functions as well as assume some leadership in such administrative processes as program planning, personnel and program evaluation, and budgeting processes.

CONSIDERABLE: The worker should be able to engage in basic leadership responsibilities such as program planning implementation, grantsmanship, management of a relatively large staff in a medium complex organization and/or assume leadership responsibilities of a small organization.

EXTENSIVE: The worker should be able to assume primary leadership responsibilities in a relatively large organization.

SUMMARY

This paper outlines a conceptual framework for selecting content to include in a curriculum (formal academic program, continuing education, in-service training, etc.) appropriate to the expected responsibilities of the level of work for a given group of practitioners. No attempt is made to operationalize this framework beyond the use of illustrations. Such an undertaking would produce a monograph of its own. Rather, the intent is to raise basic questions for use by any group desiring to develop a curriculum design.

A variety of curriculum content recommendations are available.[5] A marked similarity in content and design exists among these recommendations. But none of these formulations consider the basic issues of different levels of competence in relation to work responsibilities nor do they explicitly address the question of development. This paper is intended to close that gap. By combining the basic ideas outlined here with the content outlined in

one or a combination of those formulations, one should be able to design curriculum content that is functionally specific with respect both to knowledge (classroom content) and skill (field experience).

FOOTNOTES

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   Cleland, D.I. and King, W.R. Management: A Systems Approach. New York. McGraw-Hill, 1972.

2. Koontz, H. and O'Donnell, C. Principles of Management: An Analysis of Managerial Functions. New York. McGraw-Hill, 1968.

3. This scheme is based on a similar matrix developed at the Southern Regional Education Board to define competencies for Human Service Workers: Teare, Robert J. and McPheeters, Harold L. Manpower Utilization in Social Welfare; Atlanta. Southern Regional Education Board, 1970.

4. This typology is based on the Southern Regional Education Board's work in social welfare manpower: Teare and McPheeters op. cit., and McPheeters, Harold L. and Ryan, Robert M., A Core of Competence for Baccalaureate Social Welfare and Curricular Implications. Atlanta. Southern Regional Education Board, 1971.

5. Elisabeth Schaub, Project Director, National Project on Education for Management of Social Welfare. University of Pennsylvania, School of Social Work, Philadelphia, 1975.

   Helen Kerschner, Director, Administration Curriculum Development: A Design Project. University of Southern California, School of Social Work, Los Angeles. 1976.

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MANAGERIAL FUNCTIONS	GENERAL KNOWLEDGE	SPECIFIC KNOWLEDGE	PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVES	PRACTICE ASSIGNMENTS	CLASSROOM CONTENT
PLANNING: The selection of future courses of action in which (a) the goals are determined and specified; (b) the means of goal attainment specified; and (c) a time frame for goal achievement specified; this includes clearly defined purposes, aims and organization.	Program development planning theories	Planning methods Decision theory Organizational analysis Goal attainment, scaling and similar goal-oriented planning techniques Operations research Planning methods & techniques Resource planning Project planning Personal planning MBO MOR PPBS PERT Strategies for alternative selections.	Needs assessment Policy analysis Decision making Determine organization purpose. State tasks to accomplish purpose. Define methods for performing tasks. Establish time frame. Calculate budget needs for plans. Utilize planning techniques.	Staff a planning committee. Give staff leadership to planning for the revising of a service or preparing to deliver an already operating service to a specific population. Review and revise agency manual, protocols of service, and functions. Serve as a member of the staff / agenda committee, planning staff, administrative or staff development meetings. Develop a community resource file regarding a particular set of services. Prepare a cost benefit analysis for matching program to budget. Construct a chart of organization of the agency showing formal and informal structures.	Core: Planning processes Decision theory Elective: Communication theory Research Planning theories and process. Program development. Organizational anaylsis. Needs assessment. Planning techniques. Fiscal planning. Problem-solving techniques.
ORGANIZING: Establishing a structure of roles so people know: (a) what their tasks and objectives are; (b) how these tasks and objectives fit with those of others; and (c) how much authority and responsibility they and others have in making decisions to accomplish desired results, as they relate to the purpose of the organization	System Change Organization theories Internal ecological relations.	System restructuring Organizational development Communication patterns Principles & practices of sound organizations. Organization as structure & process. Board & committee technology. Coordination Professionals in organizations. (moved from Staffing row) Managerial grid and leadership style (Theory X and Theory Y). Nonroutine nature of managerial and service delivery activities. Immature state of technology and resources for service delivery and effectiveness measurement. Internal functioning in constant state of adjustment to external needs/demands. Leadership emerges on dimension of superior service delivery skill rather than as own specialty.	Develop a framework for organizational analysis. Analysis of system functions and initiation of one or more realignments of structural elements. Analysis of functions of subparts or organization. Analysis of communication patterns in organization. Contingency-determined leadership style (s) recognized. Performance objectives and measures articulated. Time and motion study vis-a-vis personnel utilization.	Construct a chart of informal channels of communication in the agency to identify blocks and develop a proposal for presentation to executive staff regarding removing those blocks. Analyze and reconstruct the formal chart of agency organization. Gather data within the agency and assemble groups of appropriate personnel to formulate positions regarding impact of some agency policy. Analyze agency policies and means of dissemination of those policies against the outcomes of service. Monitor and analyze a change process or the initiation or a new service through the organization across the time consumed by the change or initiation. Observe managers at work, plot their leadership style (s), Analyze determinat(s) of leadership behavior. Write a model service delivery module with performance objectives and associated measures identified. Design a time study to identify and analyze recurring and non-recurring events; then draft a personnel utilization prospectus based on results.	Core: Organizational theory Organizational development System theory Leadership behavior in organizations Designing service delivery systems Electives: Developing new programs of social intervention. Organizing for changes in public policy and health delivery systems. Changing bureaucratic organizations. Board and committee technology. Planned change.

CHART I continued

MANAGERIAL FUNCTIONS	GENERAL KNOWLEDGE	SPECIFIC KNOWLEDGE	PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVES	PRACTICE ASSIGNMENTS	CLASSROOM CONTENT
STAFFING: The placing of people into a framework of the organizational structure so that they can best assist in the accomplishment of organizational objectives. It consists of anticipating manpower needs; people; and appraising or evaluating their performance; staff training & development; maintaining favorable working conditions.	Personnel management	Staffing patterns Conflict management Group decision-making Supervision Staff development and training Job analysis Motivation Team concepts Consultation Collective bargaining	Staff recruitment, selecting assignment, separation, firing Grievance procedures developed Equal opportunities policies Training methods, implementation and planning of training Supervision of work unit job descriptions, periodic reviews Management By Objectives consultation	Conduct a functional job analysis of the positions within a given sub-unit Develop evaluation guidelines and forms appropriate to a given service Orient new staff regarding benefits and agency services (requires collaboration with personnel department) Supervise and administer a volunteer department	Core: Supervision Consultation Personnel management Elective: Staff development & training Work with volunteers Middle management skills Collective bargaining
DIRECTING: The motivation, guiding, supervision, overseeing, and instructing of people in order to move them toward the accomplishment of organizational goals. Measuring clear lines of communication. Included in this is the reporting function, informing all concerned about organization activities & process	Program implementation External, environmental relations	Administrative roles Administrative strategies and tactics Values and ethics of administration Political processes Legislative processes Leadership theories Maintaining communication with external systems Interagency cooperation Understanding organizations' environment Management of time Group processes Delegation Use of authority Individual & group behavior in organizations	Staffman role with boards and/or committees Delegation of authority Coordinate activities and resources Initiate staff development or ethical issues Lobbying, drafting position papers, testifying Community survey Public relations and public information and education Coalition activities	Plan and deliver staff development of clerical workers on agency service and methods of handling short-term crisis situations Review informational mailings which come into the agency, synthesize and screen, disseminate key points to others in the agency Review and disseminate legislative information Chair a short-term, task-specific committee Staff a committee of volunteers to work on a particular issue Prepare and present an interpretative slide show to agency visitor groups Assemble resources, develop position paper, present testimony to legislative committee Survey agency constituencies regarding shifts in services Act as staff liaison aide to legislator Develop and present a community training program for probation officers, police officers, counselors of various types on agency approach to service	Core: Management theories Leadership styles Electives: Public relations and mass communication Legislative processes Middle management skills Management By Objectives Reporting methods Individual & group behavior in organizations

CHART I Continued

MANAGERIAL FUNCTIONS	GENERAL KNOWLEDGE	SPECIFIC KNOWLEDGE	PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVES	PRACTICE ASSIGNMENTS	CLASSROOM CONTENT
CONTROLLING: Ensuring that activities of subordinates are in conformance with the achievement of planned goals. This involves (a) setting standards against which performance can be measured, (b) measuring performance to see how it compares with the standards; (c) taking corrective action where actual performance does not meet or deviates from the standards by modifying one or the other or both. Budgeting	Fiscal Management Information systems	Budget and budgeting Fiscal control Grantsmanship Accountability Types of information system Output utilization Issues of confidentiality Standard setting Economic systems and controls	Budget-making, administration, control, cost analysis Utilization of various methods of budgeting and analysis Accounting, auditing, reporting Proposal writing, grant submission Report writing Data processing instrumentation input specification Computer information	Prepare a report, utilizing a literature review if appropriate, specifying a definition of unit of service to be used in monitoring service delivery Develop the procedures for arraying agency service information into forms for reporting and recording using information systems Prepare a simple form for recording service statistics and perform simpel data parocessing procedures Prepare a cost analysis of agency service or subunit Develop procedures for fiscal management for a given service and monitor it Monitor the budget in a given subunit Work out third party payment or purchase-of-service procedures with the service providing agency (review regulations, billing procedures, budget monitoring procedures) Assist in the preparation of a grant proposal, including program narrative and budget procedures	Core: Budgets and budgeting Accountability Elective: Grantsmanship Accounting Information systems Setting standards
EVALUATING: The measurement of the achievement of goals and objectives and the effectiveness, leading toward reformulation of goals, and confirmation of continuation of goals	Program Evaluation Research Evaluation	Operations research Cost-benefit analysis Evaluation in all functions of administration	Specify operations in measurable terms and general internal monitoring and feedback. Utilize cost accounting budget and program review format.	Conduct a search of literature for evaluation techniques and prepare an abstract of the information. Develop procedural statements specific to various agency service functions. Utilize and modify, if necessary, an evaluation technique with specific service; use consultation where indicated. Develop the monitoring material for purchase-of-service contracts with the service provider agency. Design forms and procedures for matching program with budget in a cost-benefit analysis format.	Core: Program evaluation Operations analysis Information systems Elective: Computer technology Research

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Najma Davis

The annotated bibliography is concerned with field experience in social work education. Most of the entries deal with field learning in general; other with field learning in administration. While some selection and screening of field instruction literature was done according to criteria spelled out below, the paucity of references to field experiences in administration contained in this bibliography reflects the state of affairs in social work education. Much too little has been written in this area.

The following criteria were used in selecting entries. Articles and books were rejected which 1) focus specifically on resolving issues between the field instructor and student at a more or less intuitive level, and/or 2) focus on a narrow concept of social work in terms of learning through practice and its merit. Instead, those books and articles were included which tried to: 1) explain the dilemmas of teaching through practice; 2) discuss role conflict of the field instructor and student; 3) introduce innovative field instruction programs; and/or 4) suggest a broadened view of the field practice contribution to education for professional practice. It is believed that the entries have accomplished the following: 1) provided conceptual and analytical tools through which an understanding of field learning and teaching may be enhanced; 2) used concepts from sociological and organizational theories to explain role conflict and related organizational concepts; and 3) demonstrated that traditional social work approaches have been low-keyed and determined not to upset the status quo.

The innovative programs that have been suggested are attempts to change traditional patterns and involve limited risk within well-defined boundaries. All of these report success. They clearly indicate the need for change and that a major breakthrough with more innovative programs of field instruction must be provided if it is to be used as a valuable learning tool.

Conflicts which must be taken into account for a major breakthrough:

1. How can the role conflict between the field instructor as an educator and as an agency employee be resolved? In this respect, it appears that field instructors are reluctant to jeopardize their agency positions since the rewards of not upsetting agency status quo are greater than those of the educator role. Given this, can a reward system be worked out to praise, not penalize the instructor for his or her role as educator?

2. What roles should students play? As learners, they must to a degree, ingratiate themselves with the agency. Yet as non-members of the bureaucratic struggle, they are not recipients of the same reward system as other employees. Consequently, they have no incentives to challenge the system in favor of their clients. How can students be taught to handle such conflict situations with minimal disturbance to the system?

3. Who will determine what types of control will be exercised over the field instructor and the student? The school? The agency? Can an adequate compromise be worked out?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Berg, R., "Developing a Broadened View of the Educational Contribution of Field Practice," Journal of Social Work Process, Vol. 17, 1969, pp. 55-68.

Field practice is viewed as offering learning opportunities related to all parts of the school of social work curriculum, rather than being limited to opportunities for experience in direct practice. As a consequence of this shift in emphasis, the field agency is called upon to provide an educational setting in which many staff members will contribute responsibility to the student's education, although the supervisor will remain the key person who will help him integrate various facets of his learning. To implement this, it is suggested that one-third of the student's activities offer a broad base of social work. The tensions between the agency as a service organization and the agency as an educational setting is accepted as a concomitant of reality-based field practice, which can be used creatively for the student's learning. Berg does not mention how to deal with the reality in organization terms. Is accepting reality necessarily a solution to a real problem?

Dana, Bess S. & Sikkema, Mildred. "Field Instruction - Fact and Fantasy," Proceedings, Twelfth Annual Program Meeting, New York. C.S.W.E., 1964.

These proceedings deal with doubts, concerns, and questions regarding field instruction and are best summed up in author's words: "It has become increasingly evident...that questions that have to do with the specific content of field instruction are reflective of uneasiness as to the objectives of field practice; that questions raised

about the time and timing of the field experience indicate uncertainty as to the nature of the student learning process itself; that concern with the role of the faculty advisor masks some confusion about the nature and degree of authority the school can appropriately exercise over field practice; that diffidence about the employment of standards for the selection of field teaching centers and field teachers arises in part from fear of upsetting long-established agency-school relationships. Our attempts to peel off the layers that separate doubt from certainty must inevitably take us into our past as we struggle toward rational solutions for the present and future. And because both past and present are different from school to school, explorations and discoveries will take on different forms. This once-over-lightly survey of the facts and fantasies that currently surround field instruction is not meant as a definitive commentary. Rather it is offered to you as an impressionistic canvas on which, it is hoped, some of your own image can be glimpsed and some focus and direction for your particular future be projected."

Finestone, Samuel. "Selected Features of Professional Field Instruction," Journal of Education for Social Work, Vol. 3, No. 2, Fall 1967, pp. 14-26.

Four selected features of field instruction in professional education for social work are examined: conceptual teaching and learning, a range of content reflecting the entire class curriculum, preparation for changes in social work practice, and feedback from field to class. The essential nature of conceptual teaching, basic elements in conceptualization, and methods of conceptual teaching

are elaborated. Illustrations of field content reflecting other than courses in social work method are given, with special reference to the potentialities of the field in providing teaching organizational impact on practice and scientific inquiry. Although more difficult to achieve, the goal of feedback of knowledge from field to class--a reversal of the usual principle that the field should reflect the class curriculum--merits consideration. The achievement of this goal would require devising new channels and discovering effective devices for its implementation. This approach takes into account all the related aspects--social policy and social services issues, organizational features, and scientific inquiry--in the development of appropriate curriculum for teaching field practice.

Green, S. H. "Field Instructor Judgments: Practice Expectations for Casework Students," Social Work Today, London, Vol. 24. No. 4, pp. 3-11, 1967

A study of field instructor judgment of student performance was conducted at a school of social work to ascertain the contribution of practice-wisdom to the conceptualization of assessment criteria in field instruction. Data regarding 15 first year casework students were collected from 12 field instructors who submitted two incidents of performance weekly--one judged effective and one ineffective--drawn from students' records, direct observation, and supervisory conferences. Five major learning areas were identified: working with the agency, interaction with field instructor, interaction with clients, self-awareness, and knowledge. The major focus was found to be on interaction with clients. Knowledge received the least attention, reflecting an expectation that knowledge is more significant

when demonstrated in performance. There was a lack of formality and precision in descriptive and judgmental language, indicating standards of social work that can not always be formalized in conceptual terms. Field instructors should not be expected to conceptualize practice as it is done in the classroom, because categories of thought used in academic settings do not seem to be effective in describing the exercise of skill. The main concern of the field instructor is to guide the student in learning to act knowledgably within the agency as he provides its services to clients. (John J. Stretch)

Hanlan, Archie. "Changing Functions and Structures in Supervision & Administration," Mimeographed paper, School of Social Work, University of Pennsylvania, undated.

This article, proposes to restructure social work supervision by using the concepts of function, structure, and process. These concepts are taken beyond the social worker's use of the terms and deal with the role conflict of the supervisor as agency employee and educator. Hanlan, reviews the literature extensively and suggests a system's view of the agency and the supervisory role. Analyzing the problem of supervision from different administrative aspects, he suggests new ways in which role conflicts may be conceptualized and new approaches to the problem developed. Rejecting a narrow approach, he insists that the social work administrator take the entire system into account. The key is to take structure, function, and process in the full context of their relatedness, not individually.

Kendall, Katherine K., "Selected Issues in Field Instruction in Education for Social Work." Social Service Review, Vol. 33, No. 1, March 1959, pp. 1-9.

This article focuses on specific issues for social work field instruction. One issue is over the development of skill. Educators feel too much emphasis is given to the development of practice skills whereas practitioners argue that not enough is done in this area. This is the central theme of the article and it considers factors which affect the issue of dual responsibility.

Jones, Betty L., Ed. Current Patterns in Field Instruction in Graduate Social Work Education. C.S.W.E., 1969.

This book is divided into five sections--(1) An Overview of Field Instruction, (2) Settings and Practice Methods, (3) Teaching and Learning in the Field, (4) Evaluation of Student Performance, and (5) Administration of Field Instruction. The articles in each section deal with the problems of field instruction in terms of student concerns, agency function, and administrative inputs. The last section introduces five assumptions on which field instruction is based. Administrative questions are based on the role that faculty field instructors should play both as educators and decision-makers at the policy level. These articles address the need for schools and agencies to collaborate on the learning experience of the student. Specifically, this includes changing the curriculum to meet needs of social work functions and to achieve adequate collaboration between agency and school. The intent is to bridge the gap that exists between agencies and schools in exercising control over the students' education.

Irving, Howard H., "A Social-Science Approach to a Problem in Field Instruction. The Analysis of a Three-Part Role Set." Journal of Education for Social Work, Spring, 1969, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 49-56.

Using an analytical model derived from social sciences, Irving provides a systems model of role structure in an agency setting. Within this framework, he discusses the role of the field instructor as an agent of the agency and as a teacher. As a teacher, the role of the field consultant is to link practice in the field with more conceptual teaching which is more than agency-bound technical training. As an agency/employee the field instructor is assigned his teaching responsibilities as part of his job. In other words, his principal commitment is as agency employee. How the instructor resolves this role conflict depends on well known role-conflict concepts and may go either way--in favor of the school or the agency, depending on which reward system is greater.

While the article addresses itself to the key organizational problems of establishing a field instruction program it does not provide a solution. The intent is to provide an analytical and conceptual tool for understanding role-conflict.

McNew, Emily, and Yong, Anne. "Field Instruction at Marywood: Its Micro, Macro, and Modular." Journal of Education for Social Work, Vol. 6, No. 1, Spring, 1970, pp. 29-40.

This article points to the importance of understanding the system at the macro level to intervene meaningfully at the micro level. Field instruction should take into account the broad policy and organizational constraints which hamper the offering of direct service to clients. Too often, social work students, in their field placement,

are aware of the limitations placed on them by large policy issues but are unable to cope with them--thereby making intervention difficult. An understanding of this, coupled with instruction and proper guidance through education can make field instruction more effective.

Neugeboren, Bernard. "Developing Specialized Programs in Social Work Administration in the Masters Degree Program: Field Practice." Journal of Education for Social Work, Vol. 7, No. 3, Fall, 1971, pp. 35-47.

This paper presents the experiences of the Rutgers Graduate School of Social Work in developing a specialized program in social work administration with focus on the field practice component. The need for this kind of specialized training in social work is contrasted with the slow development of this curriculum area in schools of social work. Various issues are raised as to the feasibility of conducting such a program within the context of a graduate school of social work with focus on various opportunities and constraints associated with agency-based field instruction and the variation of leadership potentials of students. Although the issues are derived from a limited experience involving relatively few students and agencies, they are presented to stimulate discussion by schools involved in similar educational programs as well as in the hope that those experiences will help others develop this type of specialized program. In general, the Rutgers experience reveals the high potential for development of specialized programs in social work administration. Such programs are viewed by students and social welfare organizations as meeting an unmet need in the field.

Quaranter, Mary Ann, and Stanton, Greta. "Planning Curriculum Change in a Large Traditional Field Instruction Program," Journal of Education For Social Work, Vol. 9, No. 1, Winter, 1973, pp. 55-66.

This article describes the experience of Fordham University in developing a new curriculum geared to provide social work with greater emphasis on present practice needs. In this respect, attempting to bring radical change in the field work component is very complex. Absence of a field instruction syllabus is one major drawback; the primary role of field instructors as agency representatives rather than educators is another. A potential pitfall is the bureaucratic conflict between the school with its singular education goal and the agency with its service goal as primary and its educational goals as secondary. Fordham finds that communication should be refined between agency and school to facilitate educational partnership.

Segal, Brian and Austin, Michael J. "Innovations in Field Instruction: Community College Teaching and Staff Development", Vol. 10, No. 1, Winter, 1974. Journal of Education for Social Work, pp. 77-80.

An interface was created between practitioners and educators in this field instruction program. Students were placed in the staff development unit of a community college and were responsible for these tasks: developing and practicing in protective services workshops; developing a foster parent handbook, orientation packages for incoming workers, and curriculum materials, bibliographies, etc., for use in training and teaching, providing case-consultation services for professionals in the agencies; and identifying basic training and educational needs. The program was deemed highly successful.

Success may be attributed to the fact that field instruction took place in educational institutions. Traditionally, schools are used to accepting students as teaching assistants. Since the goals are academic, the possibility of role conflict is minimized, and the practicum is a meaningful experience for both parties.

Somers, Mary Louise, and Gitlin, Paul. "Innovations in Field Instruction in Social Group Work." Journal of Education for Social Work, Vol. 2, No. 1, Spring, 1966, pp. 52-55.

To determine how innovation in field instruction has been initiated, the authors collected data from 42 social work schools. Findings revealed innovations in: (1) demonstration, (2) consultation, (3) education of selected case-workers in the group-work method, (4) employment of group workers as staff members, and (5) identification of service needs. These five often overlapped and were not discrete. Authors conclude that innovations in field instruction are determined by the complex interaction of intellectual climate, chance, social problems, change, practice demands, agency systems, and educated imaginative thinking. Also, the innovator must be prepared to take risks in introducing changes. In their conclusions, the authors discuss the following questions which determine innovations: Are innovations largely determined by funding? Why is research mentioned so infrequently? Are social work educators, in Merton's words, so ritualistically given to institutionalized means that they cannot innovate outside of them?

These questions raised the important issue that social work tends to be tradition-bound and timid in initiating change in field instruction.

St. Cecil, George Henry. "An Examination of Fieldwork Models at Adelphi University School of Social Work." Journal of Education for Social Work, Vol. 11, No. 3, Fall, 1975, pp. 62-68.

This article provides a conceptual framework to which Adelphi University geared the fieldwork experience for its students. The model under which Adelphi operated was a Field Instruction Center, comprised of a variety of agencies in which students were placed for practicum. The Center monitored the learning experience and created a major communication channel with agency personnel via the field instruction coordinator who performed several functions. The principle aim of the coordinator's function was to ensure continuity of the program for effective student learning. The purpose was to develop a smooth and adequate relationship between Adelphi and its agencies of field instruction.